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HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

Hospital Construction. The progress and present condition of hospital construction are deserving consideration by those who work among the various charitable institutions. Miss Nightingale makes the rather startling announcement in one of her essays on hospitals, "Hospitals should not make their inmates sick." The inference is that an institution created to cure the sick may be so located, constructed, and managed that it tends to promote the sickness of its inmates. And such is a fact which has been only too often demonstrated, even in our most pretentious hospitals. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance that the principles of correct hospital construction should be understood at this time when it may be affirmed that they have been established on a thoroughly scientific basis. It is greatly to be regretted that we have as yet no expert hospital architects. The greatest defects in modern hospitals are traceable to the ignorance of architects as to the peculiar nature of these institutions. They have no proper appreciation of the necessities of the sick, as regards their living and sleeping rooms; of the require-

ments of modern nursing; of the relations of the administration department to the other branches of the service; and hence it follows that they fail, not only to supply the needed rooms and equipment, but they are entirely incompetent to group the different parts of the hospital so as to render the management easy and economical and to provide those conditions most conducive to the speedy recovery of the sick. It ought, perhaps, to be expected of the architect who, for the first time, is called to prepare plans of a hospital, that his chief aim will be to enhance his reputation by erecting a building which will attract attention by its imposing appearance. Hence he gives far more thought to its external peculiarities, its towers and turrets, its gables and cornices, and other expensive but useless kinds of ornamentation than to the adaptation of the interior arrangements to the wants of the sick and their care-takers. But the ignorance of the principles of architecture among architects might be tolerated were they teachable in regard to the necessity of adapting every part of the interior to the special requirements of the sick. Far too often

they stoutly resist every effort, and even suggestion, of those having practical experience in hospital management, to provide all the details and arrangements in the wards, closets, toilet-rooms, kitchen, laundry, and other branches of the service necessary to render the hospital a success. The plea more frequently given is that the suggested change from the stereotyped plan will spoil the architectural effect.

The lamentable results of the ignorance of architects employed to erect hospitals is seen on every hand, and more strikingly in the expensive recently constructed hospitals of the large cities. The vast outlay of money for worthless and misplaced ornamentation on a building designed for the humble but sacred purpose of curing the sick, while the interior is wanting in the essential conditions for their proper care and treatment, can not be characterized as other than criminal. And yet at every turn we may see one of these structures rising, and if we inquire as to its monumental proportions and palatial designs, we are informed by the managers, with manifest pride, that the architect is the same man who built the most costly church in town. When the building is completed it too frequently happens that the funds have been exhausted and the corporation is bankrupt. From that time forth the managers struggle on from year to year, incessantly appealing to the public for the means of maintenance. We feel justified, therefore, in saying that there is great need of a class of architects who would make hospital

construction a specialty, and that we shall not have the highest type of hospitals until this reform is accomplished.

Looking backward over the present century it is not difficult to trace the most important changes and improvements in hospital construction that have been gradually developed. In general it may be said that, in the early days of the century, the central idea in the plan of the hospital was convenience and economy of administration. This may be called the unit of construction in the early hospitals. In developing the plan the first and most important feature was such an aggregation of the different branches of the service that the space intervening between them should be reduced to a minimum. This led to the erection of buildings having little ground space and great elevation. In the center was a stairway extending from the basement to the attic, forming an immense air-shaft, and from this axis radiated the rooms on each floor. It necessarily followed that this hollow shaft not only received the air of each room, but in turn the rooms received the air of the shaft, and thus a common atmosphere pervaded the entire establishment. Grouped around the base of this shaft were the administrative rooms; viz., the kitchen, the dining-room, the laundry, the storeroom, the drug department; on the first floor were the offices; on the second, third, fourth, and fifth floors were the wards and their accessory rooms—the bath-rooms, the closets, the

clothes-rooms and sculleries. All of these communicated directly or indirectly with the great central stairway, the common medium of administration.

The type of these hospital buildings was the original New York hospital, the second hospital erected in this country. The charter of the corporation was obtained from George III, in 1770, and the first building was nearly completed in 1775 when it took fire and was completely destroyed. The second building was but partly completed when the war of the revolution broke out, and no farther effort was made to open the hospital until 1791, when it was finally finished and patients were received. The illustrations of the interior of the hospital, still preserved, prove what has already been stated, that the central idea of the plan of construction was facility of administration. The aggregate method of arrangement of all branches of the administration and the wards was carried out to perfection. All the rooms and wards were arranged around a central shaft, so that a common atmosphere pervaded the entire establishment. This plan of hospital construction continued to prevail in this country for more than half a century.

With the commencement of the civil war the question of the proper construction of military hospitals was widely discussed and the whole subject of military hygiene was thoroughly canvassed by the best authorities at home and abroad. From this discussion was evolved a new prin-

ciple which was destined to revolutionize the old methods of hospital construction. The patient himself now became the central idea, or unit, in the hospital plan. The entire establishment was thereafter to be subordinated to the one great object of the hospital; viz., the cure of the sick. The convenience and comfort of officers and attendants, the facilities of administration, and even the arrangements for the social and sometimes convivial enjoyments of the managers at their monthly meetings had to be sacrificed, if need be, to the one central thought and purpose, the welfare and recovery of the sick. The first principle established by the students of the new hospital régime was this; viz., the sick must, under all conditions and at all times, have pure, unadulterated air. The promulgation of this fundamental necessity in the proper treatment of the sick at once revolutionized the construction of hospitals. The aggregate plan, with its concentration of service on a limited ground area and many-storied building, its service and ward rooms gathered around a central stairway or air-shaft, thus creating a common atmosphere of the entire establishment, was supplanted by the segregate plan which required large surface area, one-story ward buildings, and such entire separation of the administration service from the wards that the air of the former could by no contingent circumstance reach the latter. This was the famous "pavilion plan" which was adopted and strictly adhered to during the civil war and

afterwards extended to civil hospitals. The results of treatment in all forms of disease in these hospitals have proved vastly superior to those recorded in the old-style institutions.

In these days of asepsis in hospital management, when no disease-breeding germ, whether in the air or walls or furniture, can escape destruction by one of the many germicides in constant use, there is an evident tendency to return to the aggregate plan of hospital construction, especially in cities, on account of economy in the purchase of lands, and greater facility of administration. And it is worthy of note that the results of treatment of the sick in the modern hospital, which combines the best features of the aggregate and segregate plans, that is, aggregate as regards the multiplication of wards by stories upon the same surface area, and segregate as regards the separation of wards from each other and from the administration, but with the entire establishment under the most rigid aseptic supervision, show a far larger percentage of recoveries than in either of the other hospitals. Powerful as is asepsis, both in preventing the hospital from doing the patient harm and in promoting his recovery, we can not as yet afford to trust entirely to it and disregard those environments of the patient which make for his comfort and recovery. We must still aim to so construct the hospital that, as far as possible, it will in every respect be in itself conducive in the highest degree to the quick restoration of the patient

to health and, consequently, to self-support.

STEPHEN SMITH.

**Public
Subsidies
for Private
Institutions.**

New Orleans is paying annually a considerable sum of money in subsidies to private institutions, a list of which suggests that about every institution in the city must come in for a share of the public funds. Last March a decision of the supreme court of the state made further appropriations of this character illegal, on constitutional grounds, though the sympathy of the court seems to have been with the institutions. It has been hoped by those who are familiar with the usual results of public subsidies to private institutions that Louisiana would now permanently break with the system. But since the above-mentioned decision there has been adopted a new state constitution May 12, in which is an article (no. 58) reading as follows:

The funds, credit, property, or things of value of the state, or of any political corporation thereof, shall not be loaned, pledged, or granted to or for any person or persons, association or corporation, public or private, nor shall the state or any political corporation purchase or subscribe to the capital or stock of any corporation or association whatever, or for any private enterprise, nor shall the state, nor any political corporation thereof, assume the liabilities of any political, municipal, parochial, private, or other corporation or association whatever; nor shall the state undertake to carry on the business of any such corporation or association, or become

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a part owner therein; provided the state, through the general assembly, shall have power to grant the right of way through its public lands to any railroad or canal; and, provided police juries and municipal corporations may, in providing for destitute persons, utilize any charitable institutions within their corporate limits for the care, maintenance, and asylum of such persons, and all appropriations made to such institutions for the purpose aforesaid shall be accounted for by them in the manner required of officials intrusted with public funds.

Pursuant to the above, the council of New Orleans passed an ordinance, June 15, which reads as follows:

Be it ordained by the council of the city of New Orleans: That the comptroller be and he is hereby directed to pay to the charitable institutions of this city, in whose favor appropriations of funds have heretofore been made by the council, the amounts of such appropriations, provided that each charitable institution applying for payment of the amount appropriated to it shall file with the comptroller a written stipulation accepting the terms and conditions of article no. 58 of the constitution of 1898, and binding itself to expend such funds and account for the same in the manner required of officials intrusted with public funds, and to provide for the care of such destitute persons as may be turned over to them for care, maintenance, and asylum by the city of New Orleans.

As a result of this article in the new constitution and of the above-mentioned city ordinance, the comptroller now pays to the charitable and benevolent institutions the appropriations heretofore made, pro-

vided first that such institutions file the stipulation required, which condition, of course, they will readily agree to. So, with this exception, the charitable and benevolent institutions of the city continue to draw their monthly allowances from the city just as they did before the supreme court's decision in the "Orr" case.

**Boston's
Institutions
Registration
Department.**

The act of the Massachusetts legislature of 1897 which created separate departments in the city of Boston for the care of children, paupers, insane, and criminals, also provided for an "institutions registration department," to be in charge of an "institutions registrar." His duties were defined to be to "investigate all questions relating to the settlement of paupers, to the commitment of the insane, or to the agency for discharged prisoners, or to any rights, duties, or liabilities connected therewith, and report thereon to the department interested therein; and to perform such services relating to the accounts and to the collection, registration, and tabulation of statistics relating to said departments, or any of them, as may be required of him." The mayor is to hold with this institutions registrar and representatives of the other boards quarterly conferences.

No registrar has as yet been appointed. Penal institutions commissioner Marshall has had charge of the department as acting registrar. Mayor Quincy has recently pro-

posed that instead of being placed in charge of a single official, this department shall be in charge of an ex-officio board, made up from the chairmen of the three boards having the care of paupers, children, and the insane, the chairman of the overseers of the poor, the penal institutions commissioner, and the chairman of the department of municipal statistics. The suggested change will require the action of the legislature, which convenes in January. Pending this change, the mayor requests the officials mentioned above to "act upon an advisory committee; to meet from time to time with the acting registrar; to study and supervise the operations of the registration department, and to prepare for the collection, tabulation, and use of the statistics of the various institutions according to the most approved methods."

No permanent appointment of a registrar will be made by the mayor, but he will await the creation of the new board and leave the appointment in its hands.

Picnic Excursions of Boston. The children of Boston are given during the summer months of each year, at the expense of the income derived from a fund left by a private citizen, a series of outings on the harbor. The results of this year's work, as presented in the report of the director-in-charge, Commissioner Marshall, make a showing worth study.

The picnic grounds were located on Long island, and the excursions began on July 5 and ended on Sep-

tember 5, a period of fifty-four secular days, on every one of which an excursion was given, except on three days when the weather was unfavorable. The total number of organizations assigned dates was ninety-two. The total number of children carried was 13,531, besides 560 attendants, an increase of 9,000 over last year; and there would have been a still larger demand for excursions had there been accommodations for them. The transportation of this large number was accomplished without accident.

A balance of \$603.54 was left from the income from last year, which, with the income for this year, \$2,000, made a total of \$2,603.54 available for use. The total cost of the excursions, outside of permanent equipment, was \$2,008.81, representing a per capita expense of a trifle over fourteen cents.

A feature of this year's excursions which was much appreciated was the gratuitous supply of car tickets to those who were transported on account of this fund by the Boston elevated railroad, amounting to 17,800. Another feature was the excursion for mothers and babies on the launches of the Boston park service steamboat company.

The number of trips made by these launches was twelve, and fourteen organizations were accommodated. The parties consisted of from seventy-five to one hundred mothers and little children, who were carried down the harbor and through the islands, and were landed at Squantum Head. Facilities for these excursions should be further increased next year, for a number of organizations which desired to secure dates could not be accommodated.

Of the possibilities here suggested of extending the usefulness of private philanthropic bequests through pub-

lic administration, Mayor Quincy writes:

I regarded the bequest of Mr. Randidge as such an interesting and significant one that I have taken a deep interest in demonstrating what could be accomplished in this line of practical philanthropic work, with a comparatively small amount of money, by making use of the organization and facilities of the city. I think that it can not be denied that the record of the past season could not be duplicated, or even approached, by any private charitable organization, and the wisdom of the donor in placing this fund in the hands of the city of Boston therefore seems to be fully vindicated.

The giving of these excursions has merely involved, outside of the expenditures made from the income of the fund, the fuller use, without additional cost, of facilities, in the way of wharves, steamers, grounds, beaches, etc., which were already in the possession of the city. This record may well inculcate the lesson that a fuller utilization can be made, to the great benefit of the people, of facilities already owned by the city, and I trust that this example of the widespread beneficence of the bequest of Mr. Randidge, through the instrumentality of the city, may lead other public-spirited citizens to follow his example by gifts of a similar character. The very large number of children who were thus given a day's outing down the harbor, under the most wholesome possible conditions, affords a striking illustration of the large scale upon which philanthropic work of this character can be successfully carried out through municipal agency.

The Pingree gardens of Denver. Denver have finished their fourth season with better re-

sults than ever before. Five squares of vacant land on the north side, two on the east side, and four on the south side of the city are occupied. The county commissioners plowed the land and employed a superintendent for the work, at a salary of \$75 a month, for three months. The charity organization society furnished seed to the amount of \$35. Seventy-three gardens were cultivated by individuals and families, and but two gardens failed for lack of attention. In October, when a report of the work was made to the woman's club, a number of the gardeners who had been helped attended the meeting and related their experiences. In November a harvest home was held at the club, which was attended by about one hundred and fifty men, women, and children of the garden's beneficiaries. The profits accruing to the gardeners were but a small part of the benefit they received. The instruction given them in better ways of life extended to matters of detail of house care. The families are visited during the winter and kept close watch of from year to year.

As a result of the biennial meeting of woman's clubs, a committee from the woman's club of Denver took up the matter of playgrounds for children during vacation. Although Denver is not a large city with little ground space not occupied with buildings, there are districts where children must play on the streets unless some place is provided. Accordingly, a number of women interested themselves and secured a

large tract of vacant ground along the Platte river, and there they carried on a form of systematic entertainment during the summer months. On the opening day 100 children were present, and on several special days as many as 300 were entertained. Every day the children assembled there and enjoyed the hammocks, swings, and teeter-boards. Ladies volunteered to instruct the children in play and simple work; a kindergarten was started with fifty pupils in attendance; a kitchen gardening class was conducted twice a week, with twenty-five girls of poor families in attendance. The penny provident fund plan was introduced, and once a week the children left their pennies with one of the ladies. Band concerts were held on the ground twice a week, and a picnic was given at the close of the season, when ice-cream, the gift of Governor Adams, was served. In a number of small parks scattered about the city open-air concerts were given, which were greatly enjoyed by the poor people who had not the fare to attend the main concerts at the city park. The result of this playground work was most encouraging and satisfactory. The children received definite instruction in many ways, and the police department stated at the close of the season that the children of the downtown districts had caused less annoyance than in any previous vacation for many years.

Among the topics of immediate interest in Denver is the adoption of some form of truant or parental school. A committee is at work

upon plans, and an effort will be made to secure from the legislature the enactment of such laws as will result in the enforcement of compulsory education, which has been a dead letter on the statute books.

The "Lost Tenth" a Reality. In a private letter from

mission, Mr. Jacob A. Riis reiterates some impressive facts about the percentage of burials which take place in the potter's field of New York. Referring to a report at hand, Mr. Riis states that the percentage in 1887 was 10.11 of all burials; in 1888 it was 9.85; in 1889, 9.64; in 1890, 9.71; in 1891, 9.81; and in 1892, 9.99. "Of course the showing includes foundlings and the 'found dead.' It is, nevertheless, that percentage of the city's life. The exhibit is startling to the one not used to such statistics; but it is practically the same in all great cities, as such statistics as are obtainable show. The 'lost tenth' of London is no fable, but a sad fact. It is still more startling to learn that in New York city more than one in five of all who die, dies in a prison, a lunatic asylum, hospital, almshouse, or charitable institution of some sort. . . . In 1892 these deaths numbered 9,847 out of a total of 44,317."

THE EPILEPTIC.

A Village for Epileptics in New Jersey. It is gratifying to note that material progress has been made in the progressive state of New Jersey in the care of epileptics. The last legislature

passed a bill, which received the governor's approval, having this object in view. The bill is known as chapter 113, laws of 1898, and creates an "epileptic village." It is to be governed by a board of six managers, all residents of the state, and not more than three of whom shall be the adherents of any one political party. The members are to hold office as follows: Two for one year; two for two years; two for three years. No manager can be removed unless charges are preferred and sustained after a hearing before the governor. The law requires the managers to make an annual report on the last day of October of each year. It also prescribes that they shall, within six months after their appointment, select a suitably located site, provided the cost of the same with the buildings on it shall not exceed the sum of \$15,000. The law further requires that all plans for improvements to the property shall be submitted to and approved by the governor of the state.

Patients are admitted on a certificate signed by at least two freeholders of the town or township in which the applicant resides, which certificate must be attested before a magistrate. Freeholders in New Jersey exercise about the same powers and duties relative to charitable work as is exercised by superintendents and overseers of the poor in New York. The certificate made by the freeholders must also be certified to under oath by at least two physicians, who must set forth the fact that, in their opinion, the

person in whose behalf the application is made is an epileptic.

Rev. James M. Buckley, editor of the New York *Christian Advocate*, was appointed a member of the board by Governor Voorhees, and has since been elected its president. The state of New Jersey is to be congratulated on having at the head of so important a new charity a man so thoroughly conversant with the needs of the state in charitable work as Dr. Buckley. His work in connection with the state hospitals of New Jersey has been of the progressive, ever-active, and ambitious kind. We also note that Prof. S. Olin Garrison, principal of the New Jersey training school at Vineland, whose early efforts in behalf of the epileptic villages were most active, is a member of the new board.

It is understood that a suitable site, consisting of about two hundred acres of land in the central part of the state, near Princeton, has been secured; that there are some good houses on the place, and that it is the intention of the managers to get enough of these buildings in condition to receive about twenty patients during the present fall.

Trained
Nurses for
Epileptics. A training school for nurses for epileptics was started a year ago at the Craig colony for epileptics, and certificates were issued to twelve members of the class in June last who had succeeded in meeting the requirements of the examination at the end of the first session.

The value of having observations

made by trained nurses in cases of epilepsy is readily appreciated when we remember that a patient may go for months without once having his attack witnessed by a physician; but being under the eye of an intelligent and observing nurse practically all the while, the very first seizure he has after admission to the institution may be witnessed and fully described; thus making the trained nurse a valuable adjunct to the medical department. Epileptics are liable to many minor accidents, therefore first aid to the injured is an important feature of the curriculum of the school. Cooking in all its branches is also taught, as good cooking is held by the physicians of the colony to have especial value for the epileptic. Likewise lectures in domestic science and domestic art are embraced in the course.

Scientific
Research.

It is the intention of the Craig colony to ask of the coming legislature an appropriation of \$4,000 a year, or thereabouts, for the prosecution of original research in epilepsy at the colony. A laboratory is now being built that is a model in every respect, and it will be the aim of the institution to have it presided over by the best scientific mind that can be obtained. The state hospitals of New York have in the pathological laboratory in this city a great and valuable plant for scientific work in relation to insanity, and since there are some 12,000 or 13,000 epileptics in the state, at least 2,000 of whom will in

time become residents of the Craig colony, it is reasonable to assume that if the state ever contemplates doing any work in original research in epilepsy, the Craig colony is the logical place where it should be done.

W. P. SPRATLING.

THE INSANE.

Insanity
Not a Social
State.

The popular estimation of the insane before the present era of enlightenment was, that they were a social factor, to be reckoned with as other classes, troublesome, dependent, and requiring the care of society for the safety of society. The enlightened conception of the insane is founded upon the better knowledge of insanity, which recognizes it as a disease, subject to treatment and amelioration. It is this knowledge that has changed our asylums into hospitals, our detention houses into medical wards. In all the arguments for colonization of the insane, or for farming them out on county farms, or for any of the schemes for relieving the commonwealth of these troublesome sick persons, the old conception of insanity is dominant. If science has aided in any degree a better conception of the nature of insanity, it has shown conclusively that it is the result of disordered bodily function as truly as applies to any other bodily disease. This should not be forgotten in the consideration of provision for the insane.

The Wisconsin article in the *American System. Journal of Insanity* for October, by Dr. C. B. Burr, entitled

a "winter visit to the Wisconsin county asylums." This visit was called out by a statement from Mr. Heg, that patients in county asylums in Wisconsin are better cared for than the chronic insane of any other state. It may also be said that in exploiting the Wisconsin method, its advocates have persistently disparaged the work in other states.¹ The visit of Dr. Burr seems to have been made with a determination to get at the root of the matter, and in an impartial spirit. He gives in detail some of the many instances which controvert the statement of Mr. Heg and other advocates of the system. "In the county asylums, curative treatment is not attempted, . . . not uncommonly the county poorhouse and the asylum are under one management. . . . An attic dormitory is not an uncommon feature of the older asylums. Sometimes the outer door opens into that ancient abomination, an airing court, built of high boards pointed at the top. A privy, the open door of which faces the building, is located at the distant end of the airing court. In all institutions which I visited patients were in separate buildings from paupers, but the separation of the two had been in some cases of quite recent occurrence."

Dr. Burr found the chief defect in the system was the lack of sufficient attendance. In asylums from 100 to 200 patients are provided about four attendants, and these he found

to be usually indifferent, which may well be assumed in the absence of proper discipline. "Patients lounged about the wards of many of the county asylums, presenting a cheerless and sodden appearance. Clothing was shabby and neglected. In some of the institutions patients of the habitually untidy class were extremely wretched in appearance, and the rooms in which they were domiciled were too frequently filled with noisome odors. I was struck by the large percentage of untidy cases in certain institutions of the lower grade. . . . Many of them appeared to sadly need care. Bath-tubs were often dirty and closets unclean. Except in institutions of the highest grade, but feeble attempt at ward decoration was made, and in some instances no attempt at all. Much store seemed to be set by the white counterpane, however, which, for covering the bed in the daytime, was universally in use." It is needless to quote further to show the entire absence of any standard of care which may be used in comparison with other systems. In New York, for instance, the care of all the chronic insane is absolutely uniform, and an investigation of one institution will show the standard of all. The state of affairs described by Dr. Burr reminds one of the condition in New York previous to the state care act, when there did exist some good county asylums, well and conscientiously managed, but there also existed others that were a shame

¹ "With the exception of Scotland, Wisconsin has the best the world can show at this minute, decidedly better than Massachusetts."—F. B. Sanborn.

to the state. Dr. Burr sums up his objections to the county asylum system as follows:

- 1st. Absence of the hospital idea.
- 2d. Lack of medical oversight.
- 3d. The inadequate care of patients, particularly of the filthy and feeble classes and epileptics.
- 4th. Lack of sufficient attendants, which necessitates patients remaining too much indoors, particularly in the winter time.
- 5th. Lack of standards of care prescribed and *enforced* by central authority, superior to politics, as shown in the extreme variation in per capita cost and differences in beds, furnishings, attendance, etc.
- 6th. Lack of efficient state supervision.
- 7th. Frequent lack of discriminating local supervision, this due chiefly to absence of knowledge of the requirements of the insane and the desire to make favorable financial showings to boards of supervisors.

Relation of Insanity to some figures drawn from Pauperism. Mr. Sanborn sends us the reports of the Massachusetts board of state charities for the last four decades. They compare in each decade the number of insane who are fully supported at public charge with the number of other paupers who from the duration of their recourse to public relief may be considered, like the insane not provided for by friends, etc., as permanent burdens on the community. The figures for 1864 show that of the total number of poor thus fully dependent upon public support one in four was insane; in 1874 one in three and one-half; in 1884 one in two and one-half; in 1894 one in two; and in the

following three years more than one in two. From this Mr. Sanborn draws the inference that of all the causes of permanent pauperism in Massachusetts insanity is the most important in its action. Doubtless there are many complicated considerations which, if entered into, would modify this statement, but it certainly is interesting as a suggestion, and might well be made the basis of further study. Unfortunately there are few states in which reports available for this purpose extend back any number of years.

THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Classification in New York.

Chapter 348 of the laws of New York of 1893 provided for the purchase of the property of Oneida county known as "Oneida county insane asylum" and the organization of the "Oneida state custodial asylum for unteachable idiots." The law provided that each county of the state was entitled (if vacancies existed) to send to this institution such unteachable idiots as were a charge upon the county. The law further provided that other unteachable idiots might be admitted to the asylum (if vacancies existed) after the poor and indigent idiots were cared for, and that the maintenance of the institution and the inmates thereof should be a charge upon the state. This chapter, amended and revised, is now incorporated in what is known as "the state charities law." The institution, now known as the Rome state custodial asylum, is under the control

of a board of managers appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate, and is subject to visitation and inspection by the state board of charities.

The creation of the above law marked a new departure in the policy of the state. Hitherto the state had authorized and maintained the Syracuse state institution for feeble-minded children, where such of that class as were susceptible of any degree of education were maintained during the school period at public expense, and the state custodial asylum for feeble-minded women, where the inmates were maintained at the expense of the state during the child-bearing period. No provision was made by law for the care of either of the above classes beyond the periods provided by the organic laws of the aforesaid state institutions, and the inmates of both were returned to the care of the county almshouses unless their friends or relatives were able to care for them at private expense. The great bulk of the feeble-minded and idiots were domiciled in the county almshouses and in the homes of the poor, where their presence was a menace to the morals of the other children and a burden to the unfortunate parents.

The state thus assumed the responsibility of maintaining a class for which hitherto no adequate provision had been made. This was not accomplished without concerted action by the state board of charities, the state commission in lunacy, the state charities aid association,

the superintendent and managers of the state institution for feeble-minded children, as well as other interested state and county officials.

J. F. FITZGERALD.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Colorado. The Colorado state board of charities and correction has just issued a useful little pamphlet, furnishing information with regard to charitable and correctional matters in that state, and particularly with relation to the protection, care, and support of children, matters committed largely to the general oversight of the boards of county visitors. These boards are considered to be supplementary to the state board, and act as its authorized agents in their respective counties.

Through the effort of the state board of charities, and by means of circular letters sent out by the prisoners' aid society, prison Sunday was quite generally observed by the ministers throughout the state. The prisoners' aid society, organized in January last to give assistance to discharged convicts and young men from the reformatory on parole, has carried on a vigorous work. The society is officered by people experienced in prison work, and the cases of misplaced aid have been few. The result of prison Sunday was to increase the membership materially.

The state conference of charities and correction of Colorado will be held early in January. Prof. C. R. Henderson has promised to be present and direct the work.

New York. The state board of charities has, with the assistance of the attorney-general, apparently gained a favorable decision from supreme court justice Giegerich, of the first judicial district, in the case of "the people of the state of New York, *ex rel.* the state board of charities, against the New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children." The board some time since sought to exercise its powers of visitation over this society, but the officers of the latter denied that it was a charitable institution within the jurisdiction of the board, and refused to permit the board's inspectors to have access to the rooms of the society, where the children rescued by it or temporarily committed to its care are received and sheltered. The attorney-general, thereupon, at the request of the board, instituted proceedings before Justice Giegerich for a mandamus to compel the society to submit to inspection by the board, with the result above stated. The justice decides that "the New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children is a 'charitable institution,' so far as it feeds, clothes, and assists children and destitute families, and furnishes them with medical aid and attendance, and, as such, is subject to visitation and inspection of the state board of charities."

The board has under contemplation the publication in the near future of a quarterly bulletin, for the purpose of disseminating serviceable information to those engaged in charitable work in the state, and

particularly with relation to the progress of the movement for the organization of the New York state conference of charities and correction.

The bureau of charitable institutions of the comptroller's office is a unique department of the New York state government, organized to carry out systematically the provisions of the state charities law, which make it the duty of the comptroller to supervise the expenditures of all the state charitable institutions and give him ample authority to prevent them from making improper expenditures. A department of this kind, carefully administered, should be productive of beneficent results in the direction of securing an economical use of the moneys appropriated by the state for the support of its charitable institutions.

The ninth annual report of the New York state commission in lunacy, which was transmitted to the legislature March 11, 1898, has recently been issued from the press of the state printer, in the shape of a ponderous volume of 1,612 pages, containing much interesting and valuable information with relation to the insane hospitals of the state and their inmates. From this report it appears that the whole number of committed insane in the state, public and private, on September 30, 1897, was 21,683. Of this number, 20,843 patients were in the state hospitals, including the one at Matteawan for insane criminals, while 840 were inmates of licensed private institutions.

The general receipts of the insane hospitals from various sources of support amounted to \$4,603,623.57, and the expenditures to \$5,489,819.49, the apparent deficiency being covered by a surplus from the preceding year. The estimated cost of maintenance is computed to be \$186 per capita per annum, divided as follows: Officers' salaries, \$11.48; employés' wages, \$59.80; provisions and stores, \$60.58; ordinary repairs, \$3.22; farm and grounds, \$3.64; clothing, \$11.64; furniture and bedding, \$4.82; books and stationery, \$1.30; fuel and light, \$20.95; medical supplies, \$1.30; and miscellaneous or unclassified supplies, \$6.24; transportation of patients, including expenses of nurses and attendants who accompany them home, \$1.04. Altogether the report is worthy of the careful study of all who are interested in the humane treatment of the insane afforded by the state under the supervision of the state commission in lunacy.

State of Washington. The state board of audit and control of the state of Washington was established by act of the last legislature, with an office at Olympia. Governor John R. Rogers is chairman of the board, and Ernest Lister, commissioner of public institutions, with an office at Tacoma, is secretary. The board has charge of the western Washington hospital for the insane at Fort Steilacoom, the eastern Washington hospital for the insane at Medical Lake, the state penitentiary at Walla Walla, the state

reform school at Chehalis, and the state soldiers' home at Orting. The first report of this new board will shortly be issued.

DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

Placing-Out. The last annual report of the state board of charities of Ohio speaks as follows, concerning the care of dependent children in that state:

There are now in the state 46 children's homes (41 homes reporting), in which 1,401 children have been received during the year. These, with the 1,955 on hand at the beginning of the year, give a total for the year of 3,356 children, of whom 1,999 are reported on hand. The great good accomplished by these institutions is unquestionable, but it would seem possible that with larger facilities for placing children in families, the average number on hand could be largely reduced and a corresponding reduction in the cost of maintenance attained. The law authorizing the employment of district agents does not seem to have been utilized, which is greatly to be regretted.

While the proportion of children placed in families in Ohio is less than in several other states which have a state instead of a county system, it is interesting to note how far it is in advance of New York in this particular. Of the total of 3,356 children in the institutions during the year, 722, or twenty-one per cent, were placed in families, while the New York homes for children under private management, with a total population during the year of 45,384, placed 1,460, or three per cent of the whole number in families.

The Roman catholic orphan asylum of New York city, the oldest institution established by the Roman catholic church for the care of children in the state, which, since 1851, has occupied a valuable property fronting upon Fifth avenue, between Fifty-first and Fifty-second streets, has wisely decided to occupy a less valuable site and utilize the "un-earned increment" as an endowment fund. About twenty-eight acres of land at Fordham Heights, on the high ridge immediately east of the Harlem river, have been purchased at a price, it is stated, of about \$12,000 per acre, or a total of \$336,000. This site will be in every way more suitable for asylum purposes, and will afford much greater opportunity for outdoor life and exercise for the children. The value of the present property is estimated at about \$3,500,000. This was originally owned by the city and was leased to the asylum, part in 1846 at a rental of \$1 per year, and the remainder in 1857. It is estimated that the amount to be expended on new buildings will be not far from \$1,000,000.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

This is the season of annual reports. Those of the Boston associated charities and the Baltimore charity organization society are in preparation; that of the New York charity organization society has been published, and the report of the New York association for improving the condition of the poor is in press. Among those of

the smaller societies from which an annual report has already been received, that of the Providence society for organizing charity may be mentioned as containing a particularly clear and satisfactory statement of the work of the year, ending with a page devoted to the more important events in the history of charitable work in the city during the year. The successful organization of the workingmen's loan association, the increased success of the potato-patch plan, the maintenance of summer playgrounds, and the promise of a new and more satisfactory method of caring for tramps are enumerated.

The newly established organized aid association of Jersey City is having difficulty in securing a satisfactory executive officer. Mr. William C. Smallwood, who had accepted the position, subsequently decided to accept the secretaryship of the Minneapolis associated charities. Few societies offer better opportunities for usefulness than Jersey City, where it is believed there is already sufficient local interest to carry the movement for organized charity through its initial period.

The Canadian Conference. The Canadian conference of charities and correction, which met in Toronto November 10 and 11, has adopted a constitution similar to that of the national conference, and has elected the following officers: president, Judge H. S. McDonald, Brockville; vice-presidents, J. J. Kelso, Toronto, Judge R. S. Woods, Chatham, Dr. W. L. Herriman,

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Lindsay; general secretary, Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh, Toronto; assistant secretary, Mr. John Keane, Ottawa; treasurer, Mr. James Massie, Toronto.

**The Next
National
Conference.**

The general secretary of the Boston associated charities has issued a circular letter to district conferences, urging attendance by members on the Cincinnati national conference, and giving the facts concerning the organization for the present year, railway fare, and other details. Attention is called to the fact that nearly all of the fifteen district conferences were represented in the New York meeting. A letter of this kind early in the winter is an excellent precedent for other societies. Why should not the superintendent or president of institutions of various kinds send a similar reminder to volunteer workers interested in their respective enterprises, and secretaries of state boards of charities to professional workers throughout the various states?

EDWARD T. DEVINE.

**Charity
Organization
in
England.**

Mr. Devine has left out of all mention of a very suggestive talk given by him at the annual meeting of the Baltimore society, about his study last summer of the organization of charity in England. We take the liberty of correcting the omission, from the address as reported in *Charities*:

The first great lesson which an American visitor to the London charity organization society learns

is the tremendous advantage which comes from the adoption of a definite and clearly established social point of view. It had seemed to me from a distance, and closer knowledge confirmed the view, that in this respect we are far behind them. I do not mean that they are all agreed about everything. They would be a very tame charity organization society if they were. But there is a very large basis of social theory which they accept. By long-continued and strenuous agitation, by consistent emphasis of particular virtues, by holding up certain truths in season and out of season, they are at last identified in the public mind with the doctrines in which they believe.

One or two of the main ideas on which the society is thus agreed, as I gather them indirectly from the discussion of many topics, and from observation of their district case work, are of special interest. First, that the family is the social unit, and that the interests of its members must be considered together: the responsibility of parents for their children, the duty of grown children to their aged parents and relatives, the sacredness of the marriage bond, are fundamental virtues. We can afford to put up with a vast amount of suffering, and even injustice if need be, if our only remedies are such as would weaken family ties and make more subtle and dangerous the temptation of those who are weak.

Emphasis is placed next upon the social value of thrift, prudence, foresight, provision for old age and accident, by saving at least a small portion of one's regular income. These are not vague abstractions, but practical tests daily applied in the decisions made by the London committees on applications for assistance. Did you in the days of your

employment put forth all reasonable efforts to provide for this crisis? If you did, and circumstances beyond your control have overwhelmed you, we will gladly do what we can to alleviate the blow. If not, we are sorry for you, but we think that it would be nothing else than criminal for us to put you on the same footing as if you had taken thought for the future, and we leave your necessities, therefore, to the poor-law authorities. The other test is likewise rigidly applied. Granting that there is need, and that your past habits and character are such that private assistance is justified, are your relatives bearing their due share of the burden? If not, we are even more sorry for you. Your situation is pathetic indeed; but we must not teach the observant sons and daughters of others who are on the verge of need that if they throw off their shoulders the really heavy burden, others will cheerfully assume it; and so the condition of our help must be that all others who stand in close, natural relation must join with us, each doing as much as their circumstances permit.

The third basic feature of their attitude which impressed me was an ineradicable suspicion of all mechanical, or what may be called patent, methods of abolishing poverty. Anything that promises to work easily, to increase the social dividends without corresponding costs, to make men independent and successful in life by merely shifting them into a new place without making them over; anything which proposes to take the place of hard, continuous work, careful provision for sickness, accident, and old age, and the solidarity of the family, gets cold comfort from the London charity organization society, and very probably gets hard knocks. Socialism, the single tax, and all other schemes, devices, and enterprises which rest upon enthusi-

asm rather than upon dispassionate study of past experiences of the nation, are vigorously combated in one way or another.

The position which Mr. Loch takes is that it is unsafe to ignore the past as the promoters of these captivating plans so cheerfully do; that history will be found to have approved or condemned one feature of them after another, and that it is our business to take our stand upon human experience, and not run what may well prove to be fatal risks in trying again that which has been tried and found wanting.

There are some interesting contrasts between their work and ours, arising from the character of their environment. One such is the comparative absence of problems arising from racial and national differences. The fact that the London committees help chiefly English families resident now where their ancestors lived, in some social relations with other families, as employés or at least neighbors, enables them to find more frequently natural sources of support, and oftentimes to reunite sundered branches of a single family, or to find some individual who will recognize a forgotten claim. Too often our investigations run out at the edge of New York harbor, and it is difficult to get the trail again, for good or evil, on the distant shore of the ocean. There are some compensating advantages in this complete break with the past, but, on the whole, if social ties—family and church relationships, neighborliness, and friendships—are an advantage to those who need not ask for charity, they mean even more to those who are unfortunate, and who must be helped over difficult places. He who removes from the neighborhood where he is known sacrifices capital in his acquaintance; and if he has no concrete capital to bridge over

the period of new acquaintance, he is an exceptional man if his difficulties in making a living are not considerably increased.

The existence of a widespread system of outdoor relief again differentiates their system from yours and our own. The division of work between charity and the poor law is clearly recognized, for the committees do not supplement relief from the public treasury. But there is perhaps a little greater readiness to apply the principles of which I spoke before, because of the knowledge in the background that if private aid is refused, the relieving officer is bound to assist, either in the workhouse or at home.

The report of the Oakland, California, land associated charities shows favorable gain in the finding of work for the unemployed. Last year's report shows that, independent of the wood-yard, 214 persons worked 434 days, earning \$614.75; this year 359 persons worked 1,368 days, earning \$1,744. The membership of the society is 283; affiliating societies, 37.

The manual training department of the deaf and dumb school in Portland commands much interest. In no branch of the work are good results more notably apparent. The Portland home for aged women makes a very satisfactory report, but appeals for a fund for a hospital ward. Some special sickness, including a case of insanity, has made the need very apparent. The Portland fraternity house reports a full year's work in the right direction: fitting the children of the very poor for better lives than could

result from their home influences, sewing and cooking schools, girls' and boys' clubs, penny savings' banks, bathing privileges, libraries, summer outings, recreation for holidays, etc. The establishment by the city of evening schools for elementary study has relieved the fraternity from that work, which it had faithfully carried on for many years.

The women's association of Waterville sustains evening schools through eight months of each year for elementary English and sewing, also a circulating library with a very small fee. The rooms are open from three to five on Sundays for reading, music, social intercourse, and occasional brief religious services.

Mrs. A. F. Briggs, president of the Maine confederation of clubs, in her opening address advised the members of the Maine federation, in making out the program for the coming year, to give a large space to household economics. The child-nature study was touched upon.

"We can do well to follow in this line, because the child should come before all other study. Mothers' clubs are gaining ground all over the land, and already great benefit is derived from them. Let us make an effort to gather together women who are mothers, and who have not time with their family duties to study Egypt, kings of England, Shakespeare, and so forth,—but who are interested, or ought to be, in the improved methods of child culture, and by bringing them in contact with other mothers who are bearing the same burdens, each receiving the inspiration which comes from per-

sonal contact and interchange of opinion, gain new ideas and increased interest in the grandest work to which woman is called."

If such advice should be wisely followed by the fortunate mothers throughout the land, and the children of the unfortunate be in a measure protected from the pernicious influences of their surroundings, charity work would grow easy.

Ottawa. The season of annual reports brings to light many institutions rarely heard from during the year. The children's hospital and the protestant home for the aged both show favorable balances and general satisfaction with the year's work. The new wing of the Water street hospital has been completed, doubling the capacity of the hospital and making it one of the most complete and up-to-date institutions of the kind in the Dominion.

The report of Secretary Keane, of the associated charities, for the past year was presented at a meeting of the council. The applicants for aid numbered 669, as against 882 the preceding year. A much greater amount of work was found for those who were sincere in their efforts to obtain employment than in the previous year. The garden plots were not as successful this year as formerly, the ground having deteriorated in value through the decaying of vegetables. The cost was \$87, as against \$188 last year, but only half the area was under cultivation. The fuel fund inaugurated last spring has proved eminently satisfactory in its working. Eighty-nine

families were contributing on May 16. Though all the amounts promised did not come to hand, the fund now totals \$135.90. It will probably reach \$150.

National Prohibition. The question of national prohibition has been before the people of Canada for a quarter of a century. The sentiment in its favor has been so strong that neither political party has known quite what to do with it, it being equally unsafe to ignore or to adopt the issue. As a means perhaps of evading direct responsibility in the matter, the present government finally requested an expression of the will of the people on the question by popular vote. Perhaps it was thought that such a vote would be unfavorable to prohibition, and thus free the government for the present from the need of action. But, and it must have been a surprise in some quarters, the vote for the whole Dominion showed a modest majority in favor of prohibition. Early in November a large deputation called upon the government to request that it now take action in accordance with the expressed will of the people. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, representing the cabinet at the hearing granted the deputation, and also representing a large class of respectable non-teetotalers, seriously expressed himself as ready to sacrifice his personal views and inclinations and submit to the will of the majority could he be sure that the national sentiment

was really for the movement. Whatever the result of this particular movement may be, prohibition must hereafter be counted on in the Dominion as an issue which can not be ignored.

Mr. J. R. Brackett has been appointed lecturer at the Johns Hopkins university on public aid, charities, and correction.

Employment Exchange. A man of ten years' experience with boys, college educated, at present the assistant superintendent of a truant school, would change if a first-class position were offered him after September 1. Address through the REVIEW.

Indeterminate Sentences in Indiana. At a recent meeting of prison authorities and the state board of charities, it was found upon investigation that, since the passage of the indeterminate sentence law, there have been eighty-six committals to the Indiana state prison contrary to the provisions of this law. A part of these sentences have been rendered since the supreme court declared the indeterminate sentence law constitutional. An opinion rendered by the attorney-general, which bars the men from parole who are not sentenced under the provisions of the indeterminate sentence law, works a great hardship to men thus sentenced by some of the judges of courts of the state. Governor Mount has issued a manifesto urging upon judges who are thus sentencing men contrary to

the provisions of the indeterminate sentence law that hereafter the law be complied with. There is said to be a grave question as to the status of the eighty-six men thus sent to prison in defiance of the law. There seems to be a general feeling that habeas corpus proceedings could be brought to test the matter as to whether the men can be set free, although the point might be raised against them that they have slept on their rights in not objecting to the sentence at the time it was given.

The New British Prisons Act. In a general way it may be said that this act is humanitarian in its provision and tendency. It is in no sense a concession to mere sentimentalism. But it is a distinct concession to the principle that public order should be upheld with the minimum of human suffering. In the future prisoners committed to local or short sentence prisons will be able by industry and good conduct to earn a remission of their sentence equal to one-fourth of its duration. In this way a prisoner sentenced to four months' imprisonment will, when the act comes into operation, be able to obtain his liberty at the end of three months. This concession will be a powerful incentive to industry and good behavior among the prison population. On the other hand, this remission clause in the act confers additional powers of punishment on governors of prisons and visiting justices. It will be in the favor of these authorities in future to punish a prisoner by depriving him of the full benefit of the remission scheme. In other words, they can lengthen the duration of his sentence. This is the most severe punishment which any prisoner can be called upon to endure. In the eyes of a prisoner it is a more severe

punishment than flogging; and it will serve the purpose for which flogging was so often used in local prisons. Many magistrates, unfortunately, are slow to apprehend the higher tendencies of the age. This is the reason why power is gradually slipping out of their hands. It is the reason why the house of commons, although it has not abolished flogging for prison offenses, has taken away the power of flogging from the magistrates and placed it in the hands of the home secretary. Henceforth no prisoner can receive corporal punishment until the case has gone before the home secretary and the flogging has been sanctioned by him. The home secretary will now be personally responsible for every case of flogging, and it is to be hoped that the vigilance of members of parliament will compel him to make these cases rare.

Another salutary provision in the new act is that a prisoner's sentence will be shortened if he pays a portion of his fine. At present, unless a prisoner can pay the whole of his fine he must serve the whole of his sentence. The act also gives larger powers to the home secretary in framing prison rules. Between now and the beginning of next year the home secretary will have to frame a new set of rules for the government of prisons. These rules will have to lie on the table of the house of commons for thirty days before they can come into force. The home secretary must make up his mind to the fact that these new rules will be vigilantly scrutinized by experienced eyes. If unsatisfactory, they will be made the subject of debate, and will not be allowed to become operative without a prolonged struggle.—*Humanity*, condensed in *Public Opinion*.

The
Drunkards'
Law.

A noteworthy new departure in the treatment of habitual drunkards was

sanctioned at the last session of the English parliament, and will come into operation in the beginning of 1899. It is scarcely accurate, perhaps, to describe it as a new departure. It is rather a large and bold extension of a plan which has been tried in a tentative way since 1888. In that year an act was passed under which the secretary of state for the home department was authorized to grant licenses to physicians of reputation who were desirous of establishing and maintaining retreats for inebriates. Power was also given to local magistrates to commit inebriates to these retreats. The magistrates could exercise this power, however, only in cases in which the persons immediately concerned declared their willingness to submit to treatment; and in no case could magistrates make an order for detention for a period longer than one year. Limited as were the powers of magistrates, the act worked well. Numerous retreats were licensed by the home office; and, irrespective of persons charged with offenses who accepted terms in retreats as alternative to shorter terms in prison, there were many cases in which inebriates, not charged with crime, were persuaded by their friends to submit to a magisterial order.

All the retreats were regularly visited by inspectors from the home office, and there has never been any lack either of official or unofficial testimony that the experiment begun in 1888 was a success. Ten years' experience, however, has shown that the term of one year as the period of detention was often times too short to effect a complete change or reformation. It has also shown that the magistrates could, with advantage, be intrusted with larger and more varied powers; and generally the experiment has indi-

cated the directions in which the reformation work could be extended.

The extension provided for in the new act is really considerable. Under the act of 1888 the establishment of inebriate homes was left to private enterprise, with the almost inevitable result that only persons who had means, or whose friends had means, could be received in them. Under the new act the home office is to establish and maintain retreats in the same way as it has long maintained the various penal establishments for the reception of persons convicted and sentenced in the higher criminal courts. County and borough councils, moreover, are now empowered to establish and maintain retreats to which can be sent persons whose circumstances would not permit of their being maintained in a retreat maintained by private enterprise. Powers are also given to judges of assize to commit convicted persons to retreats instead of to penal servitude; and additional powers are given to local police magistrates. Formerly the judges of assize had no place whatever in the system. Local magistrates were the only judicial officers concerned, and their powers were extremely restricted. Henceforward the judges of assize will have important powers under the act; for it provides that where a person is convicted on indictment of an offense punishable with imprisonment or penal servitude, if the court is satisfied that the offense was committed under the influence of drink, or that habitual drunkenness was a contributing cause, it may order that the accused be detained for a term not exceeding three years in a state inebriate reformatory, or in any certified reformatory the managers of which are willing to receive him. Before a sentence of this kind can be passed, however, the offender

must admit that he is an habitual drunkard, or a verdict to that effect must have been returned by the jury. In the state inebriate reformatories there are to be regulations as to the classification, treatment, employment, and control of the inmates, much as there are in state prisons, and should an inmate escape, he may be apprehended without warrant and carried back. Provision is also made for the recovery, through the courts, of the expense of maintaining an inmate in a reformatory. Recovery is to be pursued only when the person detained has real and personal property more than sufficient to maintain his family.

Local magistrates, under the new plan, are given powers of committal for a period not exceeding three years, in cases in which habitual drunkards come before them on more than three occasions in a year. For the fourth offense a committal may be made. It is to meet these local cases that power has been given to county and borough councils to establish inebriate homes. Under British statutory laws there are no fewer than twenty descriptions of offenses which can be grouped under the general charge of drunkenness, as defined by the new act of parliament. The most frequent offense of this class is that of being drunk and incapable on the highway. Persons apprehended on this charge are usually locked up by the police, chiefly with a view to putting them out of harm's way until they are sober, and the fine imposed by the magistrates seldom exceeds a few shillings, including lock-up fees and court costs. But even this offense has been included within the provisions of the new inebriate act; and a frequent recurrence of it will make it possible for the magistrates to order the detention of the offender in a reformatory.

for a period not exceeding three years. All over England, but particularly in the small towns and the rural districts, the police are alert in arresting people for drunkenness. The new act will, therefore, not only work reformation among drunkards who have become heedless of public opinion, and whom only a long detention can reclaim, but it will also make the casual tippler, who is not far gone on the road to habitual drunkenness, more chary in exposing himself to arrest.—*Boston Transcript*.

Defective School Children. The London Hospital, discussing the report of the British departmental committee on defective and epileptic children, touches on some points which will interest American specialists:

Speaking generally, one per cent of children of the public elementary school class are feeble-minded. [The report deals with "feeble-minded children, who, whilst neither idiots nor imbeciles, are yet incapable of being taught in ordinary schools by ordinary methods."] In addition to these, one or two per thousand are incapable from physical defects, such as lameness, fits, etc., from attending school. At the present time the authorities have no power to place feeble-minded children in special schools or classes without the parents' consent, nor, indeed, need they make any provision for such children. The committee recommend that in centres where the population exceeds 20,000, the provision of special classes and the drafting of feeble-minded children into such shall be compulsory. The method of selecting the children to be as follows: Up to the age of seven years no distinction will be

made, children of all grades of mental development alike attending board schools and infant schools. At the expiration of this time the head teachers must select such children as appear to them to be mentally deficient, and these are to be examined in the presence of parent, past and future teacher, and inspector, by an expert medical man, who will certify as to their fitness for ordinary school life, special school, or home for imbeciles or idiots. The parent, if aggrieved, may appeal to the education department. The special classes will be taught by trained teachers, and will not be of more than four and a half hours' duration daily. At least six hours a week must be devoted to manual instruction. Games, especially games with balls, breathing drill, and eye-movements, are to form part of the curriculum. The medical officer shall visit and examine the classes every year.

It is recommended also that conveyance or guides should be furnished to deficient children and to children physically unfit, and that where necessary children should be boarded out in the neighborhood of the school rather than have long daily journeys. Institutions and "homes" are not, as a rule, favorable for such children.

Mild cases of epilepsy with no mental impairment are to be retained in the elementary schools, teachers being given special instructions with regard to treatment during fits, and also as to their general training. Mentally deficient children with mild epilepsy should be sent to classes for the feeble-minded, and all severe cases, having been medically certified as such, should be treated in small country sanatoria such as at present exist, or may at any future time be erected by school board authorities.

GEORGE EDWIN WARING, JR.

BY WILLIAM POTTS.

From age to age and from year to year our ideals change, sometimes because of the change in conditions, sometimes from the increase of knowledge and the broadening of the outlook. The saint or the hero of one age may not be the saint or the hero of another; or, being the theoretical hero still, he is far from being the practical hero by the consensus of the competent. In this respect as in so many others there are survivals in culture, and opinions are supposed still to live, and still do live with some, which for the most have become as dead as Julius Cæsar or the traditional door nail. The emaciated, anaemic saint of the years before the Renaissance, the holy but unwashed hermit of the Thebaid, is as far from the ideal of the pulsing, warm-blooded life of to-day as the original cavewarrior of the paleolithic age. These may have been the elect of their time, but they strove to keep themselves unspotted from the world by avoiding contact with it, and thought that their puny individual souls were of such inestimable value that they alone were worthy of consideration by the wise and prudent. Far from the madding crowd alone could they hope to keep that fair, untarnished

life which would entitle them to inherit the joys of paradise. They did not so express it, but in effect they said, every man for himself and the devil take the hindmost. The appearance of such an one to-day would serve mainly to demonstrate how far the world has traveled through the centuries.

For to-day the individual realizes more or less dimly that though he is first of all an individual, and his individuality must be cherished as the chief hope of the world, that individuality can only be developed and perfected by living contact and communion with his fellow men. He is an integral part of the race, from which he has inherited all that he has received, to which he must bequeath all that he has become, and without interchange of thought and act with the existing members of which he is as a self-banished outlaw. Having left the old standpoint of the self-seeking recluse, he has passed through an intermediate stage in which he sought his soul's health by assiduously devoting himself to the salvation of others at the expense of that which was due to his own personality, by surrender of those satisfactions and joys the desire for which was implanted in his very substance, and without the experience of which he

could be but a dwarfed and stunted and imperfect member of the community in which he passed his days. Is it not clear that he is at length emerging into a broader light which shines upon him as a member of an ever-advancing body, the complete health of which depends upon the fullest development of all its members, himself among the rest?

It is true that in this respect, and even now, there are intelligent and unintelligent views. For some, a man becomes a hero simply by showing physical courage, no matter in what cause. Far less than this indeed is needed; for them a man may become a hero simply by being blown up, although he may have had no desire to be blown up, may have had no intention to be blown up, and may have had no wish or thought of placing himself in a position where he would run the risk of being blown up. But in every age it is the consensus of the competent to which we must refer, and the competent of to-day recognize the position of the true and faithful citizen of to-day.

George E. Waring was this true and faithful citizen. In the first place, he had no nonsense about him. He did not live an artificial life upon a plane which needed to be supported upon stilts. He had the courage of his opinions. As a public officer it was not his habit to plead the baby act. "They won't let me" was not familiar in his mouth as household words. He did not ask to be let, or wait to be hindered. When he thought he saw

clearly his duty, he went ahead and did it, and took the consequences. When shall we see more public men, with knowledge and with principles, who are ready to bear themselves like men? Is it wise to let the devil have all the grit on his side?

Waring was frank, open, and out spoken. That which he thought, he said. That which he wished to do, he did. Having to earn a livelihood, he chose to do it in a way which would help the world, not harm it. It is strange that in the most momentous of all decisions, the decision as to the choice of an occupation, so little thought is given to this feature, either by the individual concerned or by his parents and friends. Very slight reflection is needed to show that a considerable percentage of occupations which are assiduously followed from birth to death are not merely useless to the world, but are positively detrimental, while a vastly larger percentage may be classed among those which are needless to the progress, the comfort, or the happiness of the race. We speak of a man's occupation as his vocation. By whom or by what is he called to do the useless things to which he often devotes his life? People are wont to condemn an idle man and commend an industrious man, as though idleness were necessarily an evil, and busy-ness necessarily a good thing, a profoundly shallow and silly generalization. "They also serve who only stand and wait." It would seem that the sole calling which requires a favorable response is that which comes from the world's

need of life and health and virtue and beauty and joy. How much do innumerable members of the community contribute to either of these things, their lives long?

George Waring did contribute to these things, and largely, and he did it through the channel of his work as a business man. It is said truly that he helps his party most who serves his country best. So, he helps the world most who does most steadily, most heartily, most honestly, and most thoroughly that portion of the necessary work of the world which comes within his own proper sphere.

The main facts of Waring's history are generally well known, but may here be briefly restated. He was born at Pound Ridge, New York, some thirty or thirty-five miles northeast of this city, on the fourth of July, 1833, and was, therefore, in his sixty-sixth year at the time of his death. He studied engineering, agriculture, and agricultural chemistry, and thus laid the foundation for the work of his life. For three years he managed Horace Greeley's farm at Chappaqua, and in 1857 he became drainage engineer of Central park. No one who passes through the Mall under the shade of its graceful over-arching elms could do so without blessing his memory, were it generally known, as it should be, that these great rows were laid out by him. And no one should be able to canter along the bridle paths without associating in his thought his present pleasure with the memory of the nag "Vix" which served Waring so well

in those early days, and of which he wrote so lovingly.

For he became a maker of books, and of charming books; books of travel, and books of adventure, and sober, straightforward books of practical affairs connected with his daily work and containing the results of his experience. At the outbreak of the war of the rebellion he went into the army, serving first as major of the Garibaldi hussars, and afterward at the head of the Fremont squadron, which he recruited, and then as colonel of the fourth Missouri cavalry. When the war was concluded he returned to farming and to the practice of his profession. For some years he was the manager of the Ogden farm at Newport. In his profession he tended more and more to devote his time and attention to the branch of drainage and sewerage and sanitary engineering, in which branch he became a recognized expert authority. Many cities, large and small, availed themselves of his knowledge and skill, and remain as very potent witnesses to his public service. The city of Memphis was a notable case of the effectiveness of his labors, he having been called upon by that city after the outbreak of yellow fever in 1878, and having reconstructed its system of sewerage and relieved it from the constant apprehension of a renewal of the epidemic to which it had been exposed. He became a member of the national board of health in 1882, and in 1894 he became assistant engineer of New Orleans.

But it was in the city of New York that he was to build his most endur-

ing monument. Those who remember the streets of New York as they were thirty years ago, or as they were five years ago, and who compare their condition then with their condition now, nearly a year after his removal by one of those strokes of fatuous policy which make one wonder sometimes whether any other creature could possibly be so irrational as an ordinary politician, must feel that unless the race as a whole should fall into the sere and yellow leaf, we shall never go back to the state of things which existed before Mayor Strong called upon Waring to become the city's scavenger. That he made the title scavenger a term of honor was the sufficient justification of his life. He believed with honest and reverend George Herbert,

"A servant with this clause
Makes drudgery divine;
Who sweeps a room as for Thy laws
Makes that and th' action fine."

But to sweep a room is one thing—to undertake the sweeping of the streets of New York was quite another. What may have been the exact condition of the Augean stables I do not know. Augeas was the son of Helios, and the sun-god never shone into some of the foul places that the modern Hercules was called upon to cleanse.

It was not sufficient to break a hole through a wall and let the Menios sweep out the long gathered deposits, and the people of New York had been held in thrall from time immemorial by a witchcraft more powerful than that of Aga-

mede. The work of cleansing a great city is not a work for a day, but for all time. When Waring entered upon his labors in January, 1895, he found the department demoralized to an extent only possible in this enlightened city, the home of the most enterprising people in the world, the

"heir [s] of all the ages in the foremost files of time."

The apparatus was wretched, and in a most disreputable condition of dilapidation and neglect. The more important structures in which it was, or should have been, housed were in shameful disorder and ill-repair. The force had been selected for reasons entirely disconnected with fitness for the performance of its duties, was in part incompetent, was wholly demoralized, and was without any realization of the dignity of its function or *esprit de corps*. And, worst of all, the people of the city were largely apathetic, and quite without faith in the possibility of much better things than those to which they had been accustomed, and vast numbers had lost knowledge of the meaning of the term *clean* as applicable to public highways, if they had ever possessed such knowledge. The outlook was appalling to any but a real man, but to a real man the most inviting that could have been presented. And it is one of the marvels of modern times that by some curious haphazard accident the man fitted to do the work which was needed was called upon to perform it.

Upon taking office, Colonel Waring's first undertaking was to inform himself thoroughly of the actual conditions in respect to which previously he had had general knowledge not unlike that possessed by many of the more intelligent of our citizens. He formed a committee of public spirited persons, men and women, for voluntary work in the inspection of the streets, for the gathering of accurate information, for consultation and advice. This committee was composed of representatives of many organizations: the university and college settlements, the good government clubs, the city improvement society, the ladies' health protective association, etc., and met in the council room of the charity organization society on Wednesday afternoons. The city was districted and carefully inspected. The work of the women, Mrs. Kinnicutt and others, was peculiarly intelligent and efficient. Colonel Waring kept the committee's attention closely upon its duty, which in his view was not to praise the improvements which were early shown, but to criticize all shortcomings.

The system of administration was carefully recast, and the official force and the rank and file were carefully changed and readjusted and systematized. The personnel of the department was not so greatly altered, but its character was modified. The chief made it clear that no man was to be removed for political reasons, but that each would be judged upon his personal merits.

The same men who under a different system had been unreliable and inefficient became self-respecting and diligent employés. The method of arbitrary appointment gave place to a system of orderly registration and selection. Misunderstanding and misrepresentation by labor organizations and by the official spokesmen of the professional old soldier, were met unflinchingly by frank and uncompromising statements of incontrovertible fact. To the utter bewilderment of more than the slouches and the ne'er-do-wells, the whole department was put into uniform, and, most astounding of all, into a uniform of white duck. The city stood aghast. The politicians denounced the outrage and ridiculed the act, but the actor triumphed. The men who had been the scoff and the butt of the people, became the "white angels," or "white wings" of a renovated city, and proudly wore the much-ridiculed badge of their calling as an evidence of its dignity.

Then slowly—no, not slowly, but surely—the buildings were refitted, the mechanical force was rearranged and properly equipped, the apparatus was put into thorough repair and greatly improved and extended. In all these things the staff worked heartily in co-operation with their chief. Every man knew that he need not expect effusive praise, but could surely count upon justice and ample recognition of his good service, while he would inevitably meet unqualified condemnation for that in which he failed. Step by step

changes were effected in apparatus and in methods as experience showed their necessity or desirability. The closed cart, the system of bag collection, one by one details were introduced or modified. Suggestions were welcomed from every quarter, and any and all promising schemes were carefully experimented with, so far as the means at the disposal of the department would permit. The budget of the department increased, but its performance increased with vastly greater rapidity than its budget.

Heaven sends all good things, but it doesn't seem invariably to put them in the right places. The rain falls alike on the just and the unjust, and so does the snow, and the snow seems just a little *de trop* in a great city, however inspiring, beautiful, and poetic it may appear as the downy flakes softly fall upon you from the vast spaces of the sky. Upon the streets the unsullied whiteness quickly gives place to gray or black sandy slush, accompanied by discomfort and disease and vast financial loss. But few realize the accumulation of snow upon the hundreds of miles of streets of a great city after a goodly storm, the hundreds of thousands of tons which have to be considered. Hardly would it be possible by human power to clear all the streets within a limited time. But something could be done, and something was done, even before Waring undertook to deal with the question. In the winter of 1881-2 between 20,000 and 30,000 loads were removed. In

the winter of 1893-4, the last previous to that in which Waring took charge, the removal amounted to something under 106,000 loads. In his last winter, the winter of 1896-7, the amount had grown to more than 700,000 loads. It is true that the total cost had been vastly increased, but the proportionate cost was reduced, while laxity had given place to stringency in regard to loading, and the work had come to be done thoroughly, and with marvelous rapidity.

But leaving the snow aside, the treatment of the great waste of New York is a stupendous problem. In 1896 the amount handled was 2,592,000 cubic yards. The transfer and final disposition of this vast amount of material, heterogeneous in character, implies the employment of a huge force, and the solution of many intricate and troublesome problems. The great items are ashes and the waste from horses, but to these must be added minor items innumerable, and many of them considerable, which it is useless to attempt to catalogue. Imagine everything you know, and let these things be included in the list in some form or other. Among these items are many which are of more or less value here, much that might be of value in some places but is now valueless here because of the cost of treatment, and much that is at present worthless anywhere. The determination of these elements was one of the chief problems with which Waring had to deal, and this and the method of treatment occupied much of his

time and thought. Upon these he made progress, but there are many open questions upon which progress is necessarily slow. Meanwhile, however, some progress—yes, great progress—was steadily made in methods of collection, of transportation, of disposition.

Two special experiments, unique in their way, call for particular mention—the boys' and girls' clubs, and the system of labor arbitration. In the spring of 1895, Colonel Waring became interested in a boys' club at the university settlement on Delancey street, which proposed to act as an auxiliary in inspecting and reporting upon the condition of the streets. This club did not accomplish much, but the idea impressed the commissioner favorably and he desired to extend the experiment, and in the autumn approved of a scheme for such extension proposed by Mr. Reynolds, with whom he had consulted. Under this scheme many clubs were organized, clubs of boys, and clubs of girls, mostly, if not wholly, upon the east side, whose function was, not only to inspect and report, but themselves to act as collectors, especially in and about the public schools, and to act as apostles in their homes and among their friends. The members of these clubs wore badges; they held weekly meetings, and were visited and inspected by persons regularly commissioned for that purpose, and were addressed from time to time by these, and by the colonel himself. Addresses were also delivered to the children in the public schools by

permission of the president of the board of education. As an evident result, a marked improvement appeared in the conditions in the neighborhood of a number of the schools, while the less evident results were doubtless of much greater value. Perhaps no more important effect was anticipated or could come from such a movement as this, than the proselytizing, however little it might be in sum, for the existing lack of perception of the value of cleanliness on the east side is something frightful.

A still more interesting experiment, and one which was followed by important positive and definite beneficial results, was the establishment of a board of arbitration, to consider and act upon complaints or suggestions from the employés. The board was thus constituted: The men employed at each section station (thirty-two), and at each stable (nine), with the board men from the nearest dump, chose a representative in a general committee, thus consisting of forty-one members. This committee in turn chose five spokesmen to represent it in a "board of conference," in which the department was represented by the general superintendent, the chief clerk, one district superintendent, one section foreman, and one stable foreman. Of the board of conference a street sweeper was unanimously chosen permanent chairman, and the chief clerk was chosen permanent secretary. This board met on the third Thursday of each month; the "com-

mittee of forty-one" on the other Thursdays, without loss of time, and in secret. All complaints or recommendations were first presented to the committee of forty-one, and if not finally disposed of by it, and this could not be done where acts of discipline were not approved by the majority, the matter was brought before the board of conference, and finally, if necessary, referred to the commissioner.

The experiment was a novel one, but, fortunately, the men cordially co-operated in it, and with the most satisfactory sequel. The limitation of my space will not permit me to go into its details, and I must confine myself to its outcome. In its second year, this was as follows: Of 1,102 cases presented, 842 (832?) did not reach the board of conference; of the remaining 270:

Matters were explained satisfactorily at the first meeting in.....	8
Fines were remitted or reduced in.....	77
Fines were sustained in.....	21
Suggestions were approved in.....	22

Cases in which it was determined to take no action, numbered.....	68
Employés reinstated after dismissal.....	53
Employé conditionally reinstated.....	1
Employés dismissed and not reinstated. 20	

The commissioner was almost wholly relieved, and no more satisfactory arrangement in a similar force is upon record.

This in very brief outline was the work done by Colonel Waring during his term of three years. It requires no comment. As we have seen, at the end of the three years he was turned into the street regardless of all justice, equity, or policy, viewing the matter from the standpoint either of the city or the man. This also requires no comment.

It remains but to say that his end was in keeping with the course of his life. His death by yellow fever, incurred in the prosecution in Cuba alike of his professional and his public duty, is not surpassed in dignity or in nobility by that of any hero on the field of battle, and beside it, that of most sinks into insignificance.

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THE STUDY OF CAUSES OF DISTRESS.

BY PHILIP W. AYRES.

At the national conference of charities and correction held in New York last May, a committee of seven was appointed by the charity organization section to revise the "national statistical blank," a form in use by many of the charity organization societies of the United States for collecting statistics upon their work, including statistics upon the causes of distress. The members of this committee are:

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Boston,
Miss Mary E. Richmond, Baltimore,
Prof. Richmond Mayo-Smith, Columbia
university,
Prof. Samuel McCune Lindsay, university
of Pennsylvania,
Mr. Hugh F. Fox, Bayonne, N. J.,
Mr. Charles F. Weller, Chicago, and
Mr. Phillip W. Ayres [chairman].

The committee appreciates the importance of the subject in hand. Its members believe that distress can not be permanently relieved except by removal of the causes of distress, and that the first step in removing the causes is to definitely state what they are, a task by no means easy. The subject is valuable to many others besides those immediately concerned in the work of charity organization societies. The causes of distress are of vital interest to all students of social con-

ditions, and to workers in all fields of reform. Statesman and ecclesiastic, government official, church worker, prison warden, and superintendent of insane, all find their efforts depending in some degree upon a clear and definite statement of the causes of distress. It is believed that no better agencies exist for studying and collecting this information than the charity organization societies and similar organizations.

The blank form hitherto used was prepared about ten years ago. Like the new form, it was arranged by a committee of which the following were members or advisers:

Mr. Nathaniel S. Rosenau.
Dr. Amos G. Warner.
Miss Zilpha D. Smith.
Mrs. Charles R. Lowell.
Mr. Charles D. Kellogg.

Unfortunately the form then prepared has not been used by the different societies as widely as might have been. The charity organization societies in several leading cities, however, have used it and have printed full statistical tables in their reports. Unfortunately again, these reports have not been collaborated, except as Dr. Amos G. Warner, getting the original tabulated sheets from five cities, Baltimore, Boston,

Buffalo, Cincinnati, and New York, printed an interesting statement in 1894.¹ In 1897 Professor Mayo-Smith and a group of students presented a valuable study of causes in the report of the New York charity organization society for that year, but this was made from the record cards of families in distress and not from the national statistical blanks. Many of the same causes, however, were tabulated.

A very interesting study of causes of distress was made in Chicago by Messrs. A. M. Simons and Chas. F. Weller, which appeared in the *American Journal of Sociology*, March, 1898. This was a protest against the old method of assigning one chief cause to each family. To each family ten units of cause were assigned, dividing this number among the several causes according to their proportionate importance. The resulting tables are of much interest. Here, again, the causes studied are adapted from the old blank form in use. For purposes of comparison the older form which has been the basis of study during ten years past is here given:

Chief cause of need:

- No male support.
- Large family.
- Poorly-paid employment.
- Lack of employment.
- Insufficient employment.
- Unhealthy or dangerous employment.
- Ignorance of English.
- Insanity of breadwinner.
- Imprisonment of breadwinner.
- Physical defects.
- Accident.
- Sickness.
- Nature and location of abode.

- Abandonment of children by relatives.
- Intemperance.
- Shiftlessness or inefficiency.
- Dishonesty.
- Roving disposition.
- Old age.
- Cause unknown.

This indicated the thought of the best workers when it was formulated. It emphasized the individual and personal causes of distress more than the social causes. Indeed, certain critics, basing their views in part upon the statements published from this form, have said that the charity organization societies have regarded the poor always to blame for their condition.

The committee appointed to secure a new form after some correspondence held a meeting in New York, October 22, 1898. There were present Miss Smith, Miss Richmond, Prof. Mayo-Smith, Dr. Lindsay, and Mr. Ayres. The following form was adopted:

Causes within the family.

Disregard of family ties. (Desertion, neglect to contribute by children, brothers, sisters, or other natural supporters.)

Intemperance. (Abuse of stimulants or narcotics.)

Dishonesty or other moral defects.

Lack of thrift, industry, or judgment.

Physical or mental defects. (Blind, deaf, crippled from birth, insane, feeble-minded.)

Sickness, accident, or death.

Causes outside the family.

Lack of employment not due to employé. (Changes in trade, introduction of machinery, hard times, strike or lockout, partial or complete shut-down, removal of industry, etc.)

Defective sanitation.

Degrading surroundings.

Unwise philanthropy.

Public calamity.

Unclassified.

¹ *American Charities*, p. 34.

The new form, having fewer headings, is more comprehensive. The committee was guided by the opinion that those headings in the old form that had shown only very small percentages should either be omitted entirely or joined with other headings, leaving the main causes in groups for tabulation. It is, of course, possible for any society so desiring to specify more fully in detail. Thus, accident as a cause is included with sickness and death. Some may be interested in specifying accident separately to know what proportion of distress may be due to railway or other dangerous employment. There can be no objection to such specification, and blank lines will be left for the purpose.

Lack of employment due to the employé does not appear as a cause of distress. It was thought that this is not a fundamental reason for distress, but is itself always caused by some of the "causes within the family" indicated; viz., intemperance, dishonesty, lack of industry or judgment. For the same reason imprisonment, which is not a first cause, is also omitted. Old age and large family are omitted as being conditions found among all classes of people and not causes of distress, there being some underlying cause whenever persons in these conditions are found in distress. "No male support" is omitted as a cause, for the same reason; it was remarked that no male support might be made to cover the case of every unmarried woman in New England!

In the second part of the new form, which includes causes outside the family, no heading appears covering defective or misdirected education. This undoubtedly may be a cause of distress, but is regarded as too vague for the gathering of statistical information upon it by agents of charity organization societies. The same objection may be urged against defective sanitation, which is kept in the list. It may be difficult to distinguish this from sickness in the part of the table indicating causes within the family. It must be left to the judgment of the tabulator to determine which of the two is the chief cause. To assist in obviating this and similar difficulties an important addition is proposed for use with the new form, as follows: two subsidiary causes as well as the chief cause in each case of distress will be tabulated. Thus, if a family has sickness, defective sanitation, and degrading surroundings, one of these may be marked chief cause, "c," and the others subsidiary causes, "s." Separate columns are provided for adding the totals of chief causes and totals of subsidiary causes. It may be determined, therefore, how often intemperance appears as a chief cause and how often as a subsidiary cause. This tabulating of subsidiary causes is illustrated by a table from Professor Mayo-Smith's article in the report of the charity organization society for 1897, mentioned above. The difference is that he indicates five subsidiary causes, while the new blank will call for but two.

ALLEGED CHIEF CAUSE OF DISTRESS.	Principal.	SUPPLEMENTARY.				
		Loss of work.	Sickness.	Drink.	Insufficient earnings.	Other causes.
Loss of employ- ment.....	313	..	69	1	1	3
Sickness or acci- dent.....	226	36	..	1	12	7
Intemperance.....	25	10	4	..	2	1
Insufficient earn- ings.....	52	..	7	1
Physical defects or old age.....	45	2	5	1	1	1
Death of wage- earner.....	40	11	14	..	4	1
Desertion.....	40	3	9	..	4	2
Other causes and uncertain.....	103	2	3	1
Total.....	844	64	111	4	24	16

Those using the old form found it unsatisfactory to attribute to many of the families in distress a chief cause only. It is believed that the opportunity to indicate two additional causes will prove more satisfactory and add to the value of the information secured. For the guidance of those who will use the new form it may be added that in cases where it is doubtful which of several causes should be indicated, some within and some outside the family, the emphasis should be thrown upon the primary cause, if it is surely known and can be stated without guesswork. If not, only the immediate cause can be stated. A suggestion from the Baltimore charity organization society may be safely followed: "Give the cause that is farthest back, provided you really know it." Much will depend, of course, upon the individual bias of the compiler, but, as in all gathering of statistics when more than one person or group of persons is engaged, the bias of one tends to

overcome that of another, and thus truth is approximated. It will doubtless be found that statistics from charity organization societies will be more authoritative upon causes within the family, which are mainly individual and personal, than those outside, which are mainly social.

It is not intended that homeless persons shall be tabulated with families, but that for these a separate sheet having the same form be used.

The new forms may be secured at cost from the New York society after January 1, 1899. All charity organization societies throughout the country are urged to use them. The result is valuable not only to general students, but also to those gathering the information. The forms are equally suitable for use by relief societies and overseers of the poor, who will find the use of these statistical forms of much value if they will take the trouble to tabulate carefully their own work and thus understand it more fully. Its use helps us for ourselves to determine where we stand in our efforts to improve the unhappy lot of the poor. The larger the number of those who are willing thus to tabulate the causes of distress the larger the benefit which students and the general public may derive from the collaboration of the work. That too little use has been made in the past of the statistics gathered on the old form is not a reason for permitting the same to occur in the future.

THE FACTORY AS AN ELEMENT IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF SOCIETY.

BY JOHN H. PATTERSON,

PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL CASH REGISTER COMPANY.

How a large manufacturing company can meet its obligation to its employés and to the community in which it is situated, as well as bring a proper return to its owners, is one of the problems more and more engaging the attention of the business men and philanthropists of our time. With the increase of thought upon the relations of men will come an enlarged idea of what may be done in manufacturing communities. In giving the experience of one company in its efforts thus to help its employés, as well as to benefit itself, no attempt is made at an argument upon the principles involved, but simply a presentation of the experience and the results of the five years of the development of these plans.

Our company was organized some fifteen years ago, upon the usual basis of manufacturing concerns. Its shops were such as were generally found, without any effort at beauty or attractiveness. Its system of management was not different from that of thousands of other similar concerns in the country. Its purpose was to supply a new device for which a market must be made. The product required a considerable degree of skill in its workmen. The company was successful during its early years,

but found that one great difficulty was to obtain a sufficient number of skilled men to meet its growing business. Some of its employés had, perhaps, the usual feeling that whatever injured the company benefited themselves. As the result of its experience, the company at the end of ten years or more found its product breaking down from lack of thorough workmanship, and its business liable to failure through need of better system.

It was at this time that the officers of the company began a very careful examination into the causes of these difficulties; with the result that a complete change was determined upon in the system of manufacturing and in the relations of the employers and employés. With the business elements entering into this reorganization, the readers of *THE CHARITIES REVIEW* have little to do further than to note a few special peculiarities.

There is here no superintendent, the control being by committees, both in office and factory. These are chosen from among the officers and employés. The fullest information is given to all regarding the company's business. Meetings of employés are frequently held for discussion of business questions; conven-

tions of salesmen and factory people are held annually and are always events for the entire city, including great gatherings, processions, fireworks and fullest instruction. The printing press is constantly used. The *N. C. R.* is a magazine which twice each month gives in the frankest manner important information regarding the business. The *South Park News*, *Pleasant Sunday Afternoons at the N. C. R. Factory*, and other occasional publications add to this information. When distinguished visitors spend a day at the factory, flags are displayed on the buildings, and bulletins are posted telling who the guests are. All these things bring about enthusiastic loyalty and interest.

These and many other facts would interest the student of business methods, but our present readers wish to know something of those special features which have resulted in bringing enthusiastic and cordial relations between employers and employés, and in changing the community and the factory from a disagreeable section to one of the most attractive suburbs in one of the most beautiful cities in the country. This has been accomplished not by the usual method of profit-sharing, but by proving by deeds that the interests of the company and of the people are identical, and by supplying to employés and community alike many of those things in which all are interested.

The first step taken was to im-

¹The italics are ours.—THE EDITORS.

prove the condition of the factory buildings and their surroundings. The grounds are situated in the suburb of Dayton, Ohio, formerly known as Slidertown, now known as South Park, and include about eight acres. Lawns and neat borders were laid out about all the buildings; shrubbery and flowers were planted. This was done under the direction of Mr. J. C. Olmsted, of Boston, whose firm laid out the world's fair grounds at Chicago. The next step was to cleanse thoroughly every part of the buildings; windows were enlarged; an abundance of light and air furnished; a force of janitors, uniformed like the street department of New York, was secured to keep the factory as clean as the offices. A uniform color, soft and pleasant to the eye, was adopted, which, while inexpensive, made the buildings at once restful and attractive. During the winter palms are scattered in various parts of the buildings, making the rooms more delightful than the usual factory buildings.

Everything that would aid in improving the health of the 1,450 employés was also adopted. Medicines are supplied free when needed; bath-rooms for men and women are placed in all the buildings. These are free to the employés, and each is entitled to take one bath per week (two in the summer months), occupying twenty minutes of the company's time¹. He may have as many as he chooses upon his own

time. A little later the working hours of men were reduced to nine and one-half hours, and of women to eight hours, while the pay remained as before—on a basis of ten hours per day.

The company employs about two hundred young women, who work in its bindery, indicator, lock and drill, and typewriting departments. By having them go to work an hour later than the men, and leave the building fifteen minutes earlier in the evening, the usual crowding of streets and cars is avoided. Twice a day a recess of ten minutes is given for recreation and exercise. During the winter part of this time is occupied with calisthenic drill.

Observing one day a number of the young women sitting around a bench taking lunch and drinking warmed coffee from a can, I was led to consider their need of a comfortable lunch. After a year's trial a large room on the fourth floor, which had been formerly an attic, was cleared out, cleaned, neatly painted, supplied with windows, and thus transformed into a plain but most attractive dining-room. This room was set with small tables and furnished with pretty napery and china; rugs were scattered here and there on the floor, while vines and groups of palms helped to make it a most delightful place. The young women caught the spirit and placed in the room a piano. Lunch consists of hot tea or coffee, a nourishing soup and some hot vegetable or meat, and is served each day at the expense of the company. The

young women pay a penny a day toward the cost of special items, and add what their fancy may dictate. Adjoining this room are a cozy rest-room to be used in case of sickness, an admirably furnished kitchen which adequately supplies the needs of so large a company, and a well furnished, perfectly kept bath-room. The young women have also the advantages of training in the cooking and sewing school which has been fitted up in one of the buildings of the company and is presided over by a graduate of Pratt institute.

The next step in this training was to provide for the mental improvement of the employés and of the neighborhood. A library was established, which contains many valuable books of science and mechanics, as well as of general literature. The leading magazines and periodicals are at hand, and a comfortable reading-room is furnished. By arrangement with the city library board, this has become a branch of Dayton's free public library, and thus the residents of the community have the immediate advantage of the fine collection of the city. The company has two large halls, one at the factory and one in the center of the city, which are used for the benefit of the employés. Lectures are frequently given by noted lecturers, and talks by visitors and entertainments of various kinds are provided. The company itself has a very complete photograph gallery, and employs in its business one of the best color artists in the country. Much of her time is occupied in the preparation

of beautiful lantern slides upon all kinds of questions and subjects, which are used in addresses before employés and the people of South Park. More than six thousand slides have thus been accumulated, and are at the constant disposal of the people.

Believing that the thoughtful assistance of employés is essential to success, the company has provided a means by which the suggestions of its people may be made, and when worthy, may be rewarded. In every department is located an autographic register with a card above it inviting complaints and suggestions. These are gathered each day by the factory committee's secretary and referred to the proper persons for action. The company offers prizes aggregating over \$1,000 annually for the best suggestions. These are assigned twice each year, and are given on each occasion for the best fifty suggestions. These suggestions cover anything connected with the business, whether in the manufacturing, the recording, or the selling departments. Other prizes are also offered to the salesmen of the company who show the best results each month. This plan has gone far toward making the men and women alike loyal, enthusiastic, and self-reliant. During the year 1897 over four thousand suggestions were received, of which 1,100 were considered of sufficient value to be adopted by the company.

Having thus encouraged its own people, the company went one step further and sought to touch the entire neighborhood. The results of

the improvement of its own grounds were so satisfactory, and the interest of the people so decided, that the officers determined to encourage the beautifying of all the homes in the neighborhood. With this in view, a series of prizes (amounting to \$250) was offered for the best front yards; the best kept back yards; the prettiest effects in window-box planting, and the most tasteful vine planting. In addition two acres of ground were provided and laid out where forty boys, under the direction of the company's gardener, could carry on vegetable gardening. The results of this encouragement and these prizes have been to improve the suburb of South Park so that it is being remarked upon by visitors from every part of the world.

A small cottage adjoining the factory was fitted up at once and called the N. C. R. House of Usefulness. A deaconess was employed who should give her time to the moral and social assistance of the community. By making her apartments in this house comfortable, an example was shown of what could be done in the home with a very small outlay of money. In fact, this became a social settlement on a small scale. A large room in the building is used during the mornings for the N. C. R. kindergarten, which is one of the best in the community. In addition to this are a boys' club, a boys' brigade, having two companies, a penny provident bank, a girls' literary and social club, a mothers' guild, and an industrial school for teaching sewing and

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millinery, a cooking school, a dancing class, a young housekeepers' class, a choral society, a young people's society, and many other similar organizations, all having in view the improvement and social enjoyment of the community. The N. C. R. Sunday-school is one of the largest and most unique affairs in the city. It has a membership of over four hundred. It meets in the advance club hall in the factory and its classes scatter throughout the building for their sessions. As a large part of its membership attends the regular church Sunday-schools in the morning, its work is especially, in addition to the usual bible study, the teaching of those things which are adapted to every-day home life. Lessons on health, on education, on love of flowers, on planting and home gardens, on travel, and on many other interesting topics, are given each Sunday, illustrated by the stereopticon. A paper is published for this school, containing the leading points of each week's work. The children are encouraged to find the best thoughts in their reading during the week and report them on Sunday. Prizes are given at Christmas time for those who present the most good quotations during the year.

It must not be supposed that all that is done is from the company's side. The evident willingness of the officers to encourage the people of the community has stimulated the organization among the employés themselves of many clubs and societies. The most prominent of

these are the woman's century club and the men's progress club. The former includes the young women employed in the factory. It is a literary and social organization and is identified with the state and national federations of women's clubs. It meets twice a month from 12.30 to 1.30 P. M., one-half of the hour being taken from the women's time and one-half from the company's time. A year book, which is printed at the company's expense, outlines work among the young women which will do credit to any club anywhere. The men's progress club meets twice each month in the evening and gives its time to discussion of important current topics, travels, science, and matters of education. The N. C. R. relief association includes a large proportion of the employés, who voluntarily pay a small fee each week, thus assuring them a fair remuneration in case of sickness. The result of these efforts and this higher standard is felt in all the schools of the city, where children see the need of better education.

This is in brief the story of the work done by the company during the past five years, and the interest taken by the people themselves in their own improvement. The results are found in the increased intelligence and higher character of the employés; the happy home life which is evident everywhere in the building and in the community; the freedom of thought and action, and the higher class of citizenship which is seen in the entire community. On the part of the company there is the high-

est satisfaction with the results of its efforts. The cost of production has been gradually reduced and the character of the workmanship constantly improved. The company believes that its experiment has paid, and its officers are satisfied not only to continue the methods begun, but

to have constantly in view additional changes that may prove helpful. Because its principles are such as may be applied in every home and every business with co-operation and mutual interest, because it pays the investor, the policy here outlined will endure for the years of the future.

BOOK NOTES.

Dr. Pliny
Earle.¹

This contribution to the history and literature of insanity in the United States has been prepared and published in accordance with the first clause of Dr. Earle's will making Mr. F. B. Sanborn his literary executor. The remark made by Dr. Earle concerning Thiers's "History of the French Revolution" applies to it: "Interesting, but rather too minute in detail." Too much space is given to incidents and to personal and family gossip which throw little light upon Dr. Earle's character or his relation to the age in which he lived, and which have no intrinsic importance. The reader who expects to find in it an account of the rise and progress of psychiatric medicine in this country, or of the development of hospital and asylum care of the insane, will be disappointed, either because Dr. Earle did not play the part of a central and commanding figure in this great movement, or because his biographer has not clearly and strongly depicted his connection with it. The former appears to be the

true explanation, and Mr. Sanborn's estimate of him as "the real head of his profession in America" betrays the partial judgment of an attached and intimate friend, rather than the verdict of the general public or even that of his associates. Dr. Kirkbride, in his writings on hospital architecture, Dr. Ray as an authority on medical jurisprudence, and Dr. John B. Gray, with his *Journal of Insanity* and his tremendous dogmatism and force of will, made a far deeper mark on the history of their times. Mr. Sanborn justly remarks that Dr. Earle "lacked imagination." He "dealt in figures of arithmetic, rather than figures of speech;" "his mind found its shortest road and its best vehicle in numerical statement." Although he was a voluminous writer and withal a writer of occasional verse, his genius was "not for expression," and he "did not charm by his presentation of his subject." Accordingly, the great and distinctive service for which the world has to thank him is his able statistical confutation of the once accepted doctrine that insanity in its early stages is

¹ See Bibliography.

a preëminently curable disease. He was the first to make clear the distinction between cases and persons in calculating percentages of recoveries from insanity, and he succeeded by persistent reiteration in compelling the medical profession to recognize and accept this distinction, upon whose acceptance or rejection depends the answer to be made to many practical questions in the organization and conduct of systematic public cure of the insane. The nobility of the man consisted mainly in his kindness of heart, "the zeal and perseverance with which he sought the good of mankind," his singleness of purpose and simplicity of character, and his consecration to his work, all of which were expressed in his singular personal beauty and the remarkable grace of his manner, which endeared him to his patients and to all who came in contact with him. With a mind enriched by his medical education in Paris and by extensive foreign travel, joined to the habit of accurate, patient observation, he was one of the first of American alienists to perceive the barbarity of practices now, happily, almost if not quite obsolete, many of which are described in his published accounts of his visits to European institutions for the insane. His influence was constantly exerted in favor of the amelioration, in all essential conditions of their life, of the unhappy lot of the mentally afflicted, and it was very great and far-reaching in its scope. Space

forbids farther enlargement upon his career in these pages, but the reader is referred for particulars to this valuable and suggestive book by his friend, Mr. Sanborn, a copy of which should be found in every library devoted in part to the literature of medicine and of insanity, or of that best product of our national life, American philanthropy.

FREDERICK H. WINES.

Administration of Charities and Correction in New York.¹ An excellent brief historical survey of the charitable and correctional administration of the state of New York appears in Dr. Fairlie's study of centralization of administration in that state. The administration of charities and correction has in New York been worked out in as elaborate a system as occurs perhaps in the world, and in studying it one therefore studies much of the best thought in these departments. Dr. Fairlie approaches his subject as a student of administrative problems, and from this standpoint has given in one of the chapters of his book the results of much careful study of the system from its earliest beginnings.

Throughout the colonial period the administration of public relief to the poor in New York was localized in the hands of town officers. Legislation established rules of settlement, ordered the removal of vagrants, and authorized the local rates; but the assessment and collection of the rates was made by the town assessors and constables, and the distribution of relief was managed by the town overseers. The tax levy, however, had to be made by the supervisors as part of the county

¹ See Bibliography.

rate, the receipts were turned over by the town constable to the county treasurer, and then paid out to the local overseers. This colonial system of town relief continued in the main undisturbed until the third decade of the present century, when there came a rapid transition to the county poorhouse system. Beginning about the same time as this transition, there developed a considerable amount of state aid to special classes of dependents,—notably the violent insane and deaf mutes. In 1867 the creation of the state board of charities established a limited amount of central supervision over state, local, and private institutions, which was increased by later legislation. In 1873 the state commission in lunacy was provided; in 1889 the state commission in lunacy was established and the policy of state care of all insane inaugurated—a policy which was finally realized early in the present decade. Finally, the constitution of 1894 and subsequent legislation have made some important additions to the authority of the state board of charities over local and private charitable institutions.

Of the state insane hospital system Dr. Fairlie says:

The system of state care of the insane now established by repeated acts of the legislature and fixed in the permanent policy of the state, is the most complete and comprehensive which has ever obtained at any time or place. In no other state or country as yet are all the dependent insane, whether acute or chronic, maintained in state hospitals under one administrative system and out of the proceeds of state taxation.

Of the results of this elaborate centralization, such benefits as might be expected are noted. The per-

capita expense of properly caring for the insane has been reduced. They have completely disappeared from county poorhouses and jails. Humane treatment has full sway. Referring to the discussion as to whether such improvements in treatment lead to a greater percentage of recoveries, Dr. Fairlie says:

As yet the *a priori* belief that experienced physicians, trained attendants, classification of patients, and specialized treatment will cause more recoveries and fewer deaths can not be substantiated by statistical results. It must be evident however that the recovery rate is not to be benefited by employing inexperienced physicians or cheap attendants and nurses unskilled in this special line of duty.

The discussion of the present state board of charities, though it shows careful study, suggests an inadequate appreciation of the vast influence and actual power exerted by this board, as shown in the study of its work in this REVIEW for November. Dr. Fairlie's study unfortunately antedates the issue of the last report of the board, thus missing one of the best original sources for the study of its functions. Comparing the charities of the state with other departments of public administration which have shown a similar tendency from local to state centralization, Dr. Fairlie says, however, "The public administration of charities is much more centralized than the administration of the common-school system, or any other governmental function in which local action has been predominant."

The penal institutions of the state were first classified in 1815 by the establishment of a prison at Auburn, in addition to those already at New York and Albany. The administration of these was at that time assumed by the state authorities. In 1876, as the result of an investigation into the condition of the state prisons by a legislative commission, the management of these state institutions was concentrated under a single officer, appointed by the governor. The power conferred upon this officer was sweeping, but the effects of the change were strikingly apparent in the great reduction of expenditures and in the improvement of general administration. This complete centralization of state-prison management was followed in 1894 by centralization of the control of penitentiaries and county jails in the commission of prisons. Its functions are in part administrative, in part supervisory. It does not interfere with the detailed administration of the state superintendent of prisons, but it has general and specific authority to visit and inspect the state-prisons and reformatories, and also the county jails and penitentiaries. In 1898 the authority of the commission was extended, in that it was empowered to appoint salaried inspectors to visit penal institutions, thus making possible a more constant supervision of the local institutions. Beside general rules it may enforce, it is given statutory authority to issue specific orders to the local officials in regard to the construction and management of county penal institutions; and provision is made for the enforcement of these orders.

In his concluding chapter, Dr. Fairlie attempts an explanation of the strong tendency towards centralization which, in New York at

least, has characterized the history of public administration for the last fifty years. Some of his reasons do not impress us, but among them is one which is to the point: "The centralizing measures that have been studied in this essay may be considered as simply applications of the principle of the division of labor to the work of administration." This, to our mind, rather these economic forces than the social influences which Dr. Fairlie suggests, have been really the moving factor in the differentiation of administrative functions which has led to special officers giving expert attention to the administration of vast charities which in their incipient stage rested easily on the shoulders of the town officers among the other simple duties of their borough.

Dr. Fairlie notes that state administration is even now much less centralized than other forms of human activity, which he accounts for by "the counteracting force of the earlier theory of local self-government, which has opposed every step towards centralization." We fancy that the truth would be more nearly reached if with less philosophy he had explained this slowness simply as another instance of the natural inertia of political institutions, which, it is a well recognized fact, act regularly by more antiquated methods than those of the business world about them.

An excellent suggestion as the result of his study is made by Dr. Fairlie, following Mill, that, conserving to local boards much of their

original power of action, great good can still be done by central boards having functions little more than advisory. State boards, where opposed on this ground, can be so constituted as to avoid antagonism with local powers and rights, and yet be very capable of efficient influence.

If one thinks the housing problem is of importance in the large cities only, he is surprised when he reads

Dr. Bogart's monograph on "the housing of the working people in Yonkers." Using information carefully gathered from almost fourteen hundred families or over sixty-five hundred persons, in 587 houses, Dr. Bogart shows that much needs to be done to improve housing conditions in this prosperous manufacturing town of 40,000 persons. The sanitary condition of the houses, he says, is, on the whole, good. In nearly nine-tenths of the houses visited the sanitary condition and the state of repair are found to be good or fair, and in only thirty-seven houses to be bad. The board of health has adopted a new sanitary code, and is very efficient and energetic.

Crowding causes the trouble, strange as this may seem, in this small city where there is plenty of vacant land, even within walking distance of the factories, and where one would say every family should have a house to itself. The census of 1890 shows that few, even of the largest, cities have a greater average number of persons to a house than

Yonkers. About half its total population live in tenement houses—in tenement houses with common entrance and stairway, and hence little opportunity for privacy; and most houses containing two families were intended for only one family. There are some rear tenements close to privies in the yards, and frequently in buildings used partly as stables. Rooms, too, are overcrowded; three-fourths of all the families visited have on the average less than one room for each person; numerous families of three or more persons live in two-room tenements, and nearly one-third of all the families visited live in three-room tenements with an average of over four persons in a family. Ten hundred and ninety-nine persons, fifteen per cent of all considered, are found in tenements where two or more persons live in each room; even in the crowded nineteenth assembly district in New York city only 11.1 per cent of the population live in such over-close quarters.

Unfortunately, Dr. Bogart does not tell how many unoccupied tenements there are in Yonkers. Hence one can not tell to what extent the people choose, and to what extent they are compelled, to live thus herded together. Perhaps most of the families that are particularly crowded could move into larger tenements if they would; in most cities, as in Yonkers, Hungarians and Italians seem to insist on living in a heap. One can not read Dr. Bogart's paper, however, without

¹See Bibliography.

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wishing that little houses might be built on hundreds of the vacant lots in Yonkers; and if private capitalists do not soon do more than in the past to provide a house for every family there, it may be time for the municipality itself to set a good example.

H. K. ESTABROOK.

Kitchen Garden. Miss Emily Huntington's *Kitchen Garden; or, Object Lessons in Household Work*. *Including songs, plays, exercises, and games, illustrating household occupations. Illustrations etched by Frédéric Vors*, published by J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., New York, has recently appeared in a new edition. The title page exactly describes the scope of the book and the idea of its

author. She would teach children how to make a fire, how to make a bed, how to wash dishes, how to scrub, and how to do every other piece of household drudgery, but do it by means of ingeniously constructed games in which diminutive articles, which are really toys and probably so regarded by the children, are used to represent the big realities. As the book first appeared in 1878, and the method of instruction has been widely used, it has been thoroughly tested. In the opinion of those best qualified to judge, kitchen gardening is a success, and surely if any benefit is derived from this diverting way of making household servants and skillful matrons, society at large will be the gainer.

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